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ABSTRACT

In this document, the Research for Better Schools (RBS) task force developed an overview of restructuring issues to help RBS staff prepare for a June 1989 staff development program on school restructuring. Two major sections focus on the dimensions of restructuring--student learning and organizational relationships. Each section presents a short discussion of the major points concerning each theme, a series of issues to be considered, and an annotated bibliography. The first section examines the central issue of how to improve student learning. Some of the suggested solutions include: (1) revise student standards; (2) reorganize curriculum and instruction; (3) increase student engagement in learning; (4) teach for thinking; and (5) meet students' comprehensive needs. The second section examines the changes that can be made in the relationships among educators to better support student learning. Those engaged in restructuring suggest that promoting teacher professionalism; changing the locus of decision making to the school site; or altering traditional relationships among schools, districts, and state departments of education may provide solutions. One figure is included. (LMI)

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Conversation Pieces

An Overview of Restructuring Issues

RBS
Restructuring Task Force
Research for Better Schools
444 North Third Street
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May, 1989

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CONVERSATION PIECES:
AN OVERVIEW OF RESTRUCTURING ISSUES

RBS Restructuring Task Force

Research for Better Schools, Inc.
444 North Third Street
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19123

May 1989

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
INTRODUCTION	1
STUDENT LEARNING	5
Student Standards	5
The Organization of Instruction	8
Student Engagement in Learning	11
Thinking and the School's Mission	14
The Comprehensive Needs of Students	17
ORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS	21
Teacher Professionalism	21
The Locus of Decisionmaking	23
Relationships Among Schools, Districts, and State Departments of Education	26
THE FOCUS OF RESTRUCTURING -- EDUCATIONAL GOALS, PARTICIPANT ROLES, DELIVERY STRUCTURES	30

INTRODUCTION

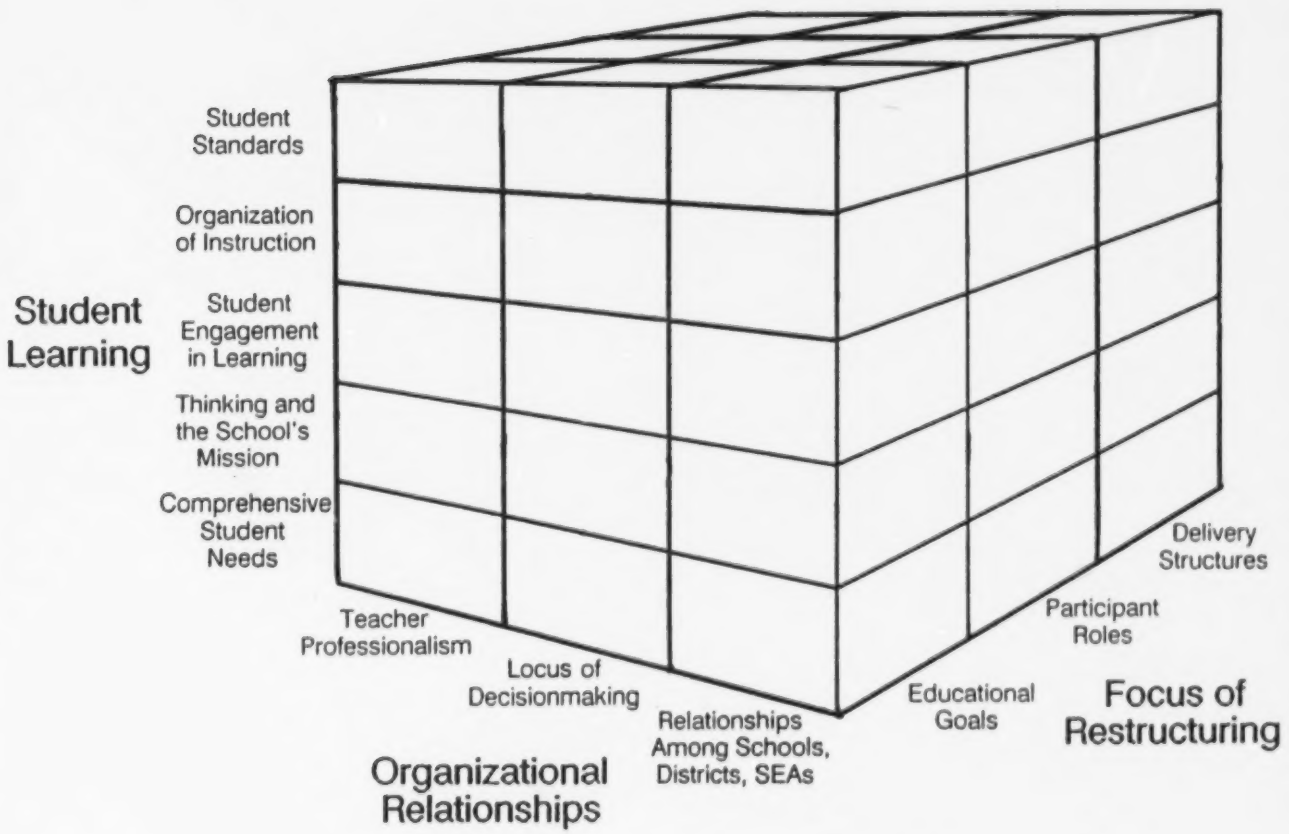
"Restructuring" is the newest buzz word used by educators striving to improve their schools. However, the term does not yet have universal meaning in spite of its increased use. To some, restructuring means refocusing the school's curriculum and instructional program so that students take more responsibility for their own learning in the classroom and later as adults. To others, restructuring means altering the decision-making practices of schools so that those closest to students have responsibility for decisions concerning instruction and other related issues. The key word, in either case, is responsibility -- students, classroom teachers, and principals taking responsibility for the educational program in their school.

Restructuring initiatives begin from many different vantage points. Nevertheless, educators and schools become involved in restructuring for the same reason -- because the current educational system is failing a large percentage of at-risk, disadvantaged students. Many of these students are not learning the essential knowledge and skills they need to be successful in school and later life. As a result, they become frustrated or bored and leave school at alarming and intolerable rates. Restructuring efforts thus have their roots in reform aimed at making schools more effective for at-risk, disadvantaged students.

Because of the complexity of this topic, it may be helpful to think of restructuring as the three-dimensional cube pictured below. The <u>first dimension</u> represents restructuring issues affecting <u>student learning</u>, or facets of the curriculum and instructional program available to students. Restructuring efforts aimed at improving student learning might broaden and expand the standards students are expected to meet, the organization of the

Figure 1

Dimensions of Restructuring



instructional program and school day, or the role and place of higher order thinking skills in the instructional program. The second dimension represents the restructuring issues related to organizational relationships or the altered structures and changed interactions among school, district, and state educators overseeing the instructional program. Restructuring efforts focused on improving organizational relationships might move the locus of instructional decisionmaking from the central office to the school building, thus, giving teachers more autonomy to direct their own classroom instructional program. The third dimension refers to the focus of restructuring effort or where the improvement or change effort is directed. Schools involved in restructuring might examine the mission and goals of the school, the role of different groups, or the structures used to deliver the educational program. Restructuring efforts can attack any combination within these three dimensions to improve the effectiveness of the school.

Research for Better Schools (RBS) staff will participate in a two-day staff development program on school restructuring on June 1-2, 1989. A task force was formed to plan and oversee the program. The task force spent approximately five months researching the topic, identifying and examining the literature, and planning the activities for the two days. As part of their work, the task force selected eight themes that seemed to best characterize the restructuring movement. They represent the first two dimensions of the cube described above.

The task force developed these "Conversation Pieces" as a pre-reader to help RBS staff prepare for the staff development program. Each section of the pre-reader presents a short discussion of the major points concerning each theme, a series of issues that need to be considered as educators and schools attempt to work in that particular area, and an annotated

bibliography. The bibliography provides a good starting point for staff who wish to read further. The task force urges RBS staff to read all of the conversation pieces prior to the staff development program and to follow up with additional reading from the annotated bibliography as time permits.

STUDENT LEARNING

A central question in restructuring efforts is: How can student learning be improved? Some of the suggested answers include: (1) revising student standards, (2) reorganizing curriculum and instruction, (3) increasing student engagement in learning, (4) teaching for thinking, and (5) meeting students' comprehensive needs. Each is further explored in the sections which follow.

Student Standards

One of the nagging problems facing education today is the emergence of different, and sometimes conflicting, sets of explicit and implicit standards for student learning (i.e., what knowledge and skills students are expected to acquire in school). These sets reflect the values and priorities of different groups (e.g., parents, local school boards, state education agencies, federal government, business and industry) who have different responsibilities and accountabilities for student learning. However, it is unfair to criticize the performance of students, teachers, and schools on any set of standards unless all involved agree and understand exactly what is expected of them.

The delineation of explicit, measurable standards for student learning is one recurring theme within the school restructuring effort. Although many districts and states have begun this process (via course requirements, competency tests for promotion, and/or graduation), the push now is to develop standards that have more relevance to daily classroom instruction. For example, one common standard, four years of high school English, does little to tell the student, teacher, or school what should be learned. Those advocating more explicit standards argue that the emphasis should be

on what knowledge and skills we want students to master. Until some common understanding is reached about student outcomes, efforts to improve schools will be unfocused and diffuse.

Educational standards should include knowledge as well as skills needed to manipulate knowledge. Not only must students know the steps included in the scientific method, they must also know how to use the scientific method to solve problems they encounter. Public education is often faulted today for its failure to teach higher order skills; the dual emphasis on knowledge and skills is intended to foster students' abilities to meet the challenge of an uncertain future.

Changes in educational standards would most likely be accompanied by revisions in the strategies used to assess student performance on these standards. Critics argue that current assessment strategies rely too often on paper and pencil, multiple-choice summative tests. Alternatives would provide for more formative assessments as well as student demonstrations of knowledge and skill. Essay examinations and performance assessments are two examples of alternative strategies being proposed.

Numerous ripple effects would occur as a result of changes in educational standards and student assessment strategies as described above. For example, additional teacher training would be needed in the development and use of alternative assessment strategies. Local and/or state policymakers would have to examine the potential for conflict between comprehensive educational standards and narrow state accountabilities. In addition, the uniform application of standards to all students would stir debate. Proposals to alter student standards potentially impact all segments of the educational system.

As might be expected, numerous tensions accompany this push to develop commonly shared, explicit educational standards. Some of these are listed below.

- What knowledge and skills should be included in standards for student learning? What process should be used to determine these standards?
- What should be the relative mix of educational standards that emphasize knowledge versus skills?
- How should educational standards be linked to school year(s)? For example, should standards be developed for elementary grades, for each grade, for blocks of time?
- Should all students have to meet all educational standards or should standards be differentiated for various groups of students?
- Who should be responsible for determining whether students have met particular standards?
- What strategies and measures should be used to assess whether students have met particular standards?
- What training and staff development will be needed by educators to implement new student assessment strategies?

Bibliography

Brandt, R. (1989). On misuse of testing: A conversation with George Madaus. Educational Leadership, 46(7), 26-29.

Madaus, Director of the Center for the Study of Testing, Evaluation, and Educational Policy, is interviewed on the use of tests in public policy. Specifically, he explains how the misuse of tests corrupts the inferences educators draw from them, calls for cost-benefit evaluations to determine whether they are worth the money spent, and challenges educators to lobby for better ways to fulfill accountability needs.

Stiggins, R. J. (1985). Improving assessment where it means the most: In the classroom. Educational Leadership, 43(2), 69-74.

Classroom-based measures, including teacher-developed tests and tests provided with instructional materials, aid teachers far more than standardized tests. Yet administrators, researchers, and teacher educators emphasize the latter to the detriment of education. New research and training emphases, greater public awareness, and a resultant reallocation of resources are needed.

Wiggins, G. (1988). Rational numbers toward grading and scoring that help rather than harm learning. American Educator, 12(4), 20-25, 45-48.

Wiggins argues that the most tangible signs of value in schools, the grades and scores given on students' tests and papers, remain untouched by educational reform movements. Grades represent a school's standards. When the criteria behind them are vague, or when they vary from teacher to teacher, both teachers and students are confused about what the school's standards are. Grading policy should be openly discussed in order to establish clear school standards that can be communicated to all, develop tests to assess student attainment of the school standards in a fair manner, and motivate students to learn.

Wiggins, G. (1989). Teaching to the (authentic) test. Educational Leadership, 46(7), 41-47.

Practical alternatives and sound arguments now exist to make testing once again serve teaching and learning. Wiggins ironically asserts that classroom teachers should "teach to the test." If tests do determine what teachers actually teach and what students will study for, then schools should test those capacities and habits that are essential for students to achieve and then test them in context. However, the catch is to design and then teach to standard-setting tests so that practicing for and taking the tests actually enhances rather than impedes education.

Wolf, D. P. (1989). Portfolio assessment: Sampling student work. Educational Leadership, 46(7), 35-39.

Portfolio assessment, one alternative strategy for assessing student growth, is presented. Portfolios, although messy and time-consuming, increase student responsibility for learning, enlarge the view of what's learned, and document the student's development and progress in the target area. Examples of districts using portfolio assessments also are presented to highlight their use.

The Organization of Instruction

Discussions of school restructuring often explore how instructional practice can be fundamentally altered to improve student learning. They also generate provocative questions regarding alternative instructional approaches which frequently require the examination of school goals, as well as how these goals influence and guide practice. For example, although the goal of the improvement of learning for at-risk students is widely accepted, educators do not agree on how the organization of instruction is related to this goal.

The current restructuring literature suggests that traditional patterns of instructional methodology and curriculum should be reconsidered to more effectively organize time, space, students, staff, and community resources. In restructured schools, instructional methods should reflect research-based knowledge that enables all students to achieve desired learning outcomes (i.e., cooperative learning/peer tutoring, experiential and community-based learning, continuous progress/mastery learning, and computer-assisted instruction). In addition, alternative instructional grouping and scheduling structures, such as flexible scheduling, block scheduling, class size variability, schools-within-schools, or expanded school hours and a yearly calendar should be explored. Curriculum scope, sequence, and structure should feature "uncluttered" curricular arrangements, where teachers use a variety of materials matched to different student needs, interests, and abilities, and where teachers insist on thorough work by all students, even at the expense of "coverage" of content.

Issues raised regarding the restructuring of instructional methodology and curriculum include:

- How can schools reorganize instruction in ways that improve student learning?
- What challenges do schools face as they reorganize instruction by altering traditional structures of time, space, and the student grouping?
- What changes are required in curriculum as a result of restructuring instructional practice? Is it possible to redesign the organization of instruction without modifying the curriculum?
- If schools restructure the curriculum so that depth becomes more important than breadth, what problems or concerns arise?

Bibliography

Cuban, L. (1989). At-risk students: What teachers and principals can do. Educational Leadership, 46(5), 29-32.

Cuban asserts that there is sufficient knowledge available to make fundamental changes in classrooms and schools, and that this knowledge can help create schools and classrooms that increase the student's desire to learn and complete school, build self-esteem, and enhance academic performance. Part of this research base suggests three instructional options that are especially powerful for at-risk students, namely: (1) direct instruction or active teaching; (2) instructional approaches that build on student strengths, make linkages with life experience, involve active learning, and develop higher order thinking; and (3) mixed ability and multi-age groupings.

Cuban, L. (1986). Persistent instruction: Another look at constancy in the classroom. Phi Delta Kappan, 68(1), 7-11.

Cuban describes the tenacity and durability of teacher practices that have outlasted vigorous efforts at reform. He describes how earlier structural innovations (large graded schools, self-contained classrooms, 50-minute periods, multiple curricula, Carnegie units, standardized tests) have led to teacher-adaptations (lecturing, large-group instruction, reliance on a textbook and chalkboard, seatwork assignments, recitation, discussion, and the use of teacher-made quizzes and tests). He maintains that recent state reform mandates have encouraged the persistence of these practices and argues current school organizational structures inhibit the development of students' independent reasoning and problem solving skills.

Slavin, R. E., & Madden, N. A. (1989). What works for students at risk: A research synthesis. Educational Leadership, 46(5), 4-13.

Slavin and Madden identify specific instructional practices which accelerate student achievement, especially for students at risk. These include: (1) continuous progress programs in which students (a) proceed at their own pace through a sequence of well-defined instructional objectives, (b) are taught in small groups of similar skill levels often from different grades or classes, and (c) are frequently assessed and regrouped; (2) cooperative learning in which students work in small group learning teams to master material initially presented by the teacher and in which teams are rewarded based on the individual learning of all team members; and (3) computer assisted instruction.

Walberg, H. J., & Lane, J. J. (Eds.). (1989). Organizing for learning: Toward the 21st century. **Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.**

In this monograph, 12 authors offer their perspectives on the essential components of good schools and provide a capsule view of the major current proposals for improving and restructuring schools. The case studies describe differing perspectives on the reorganization of schools, their advantages and disadvantages, how they encourage learning effectiveness and excellence, and differing role expectations. Examples include Sizer's Essential School,

Bennett's James Madison School, a site-managed school, mandate-responsive schools, schools-within-schools, information-age schools, personalized schools, and a computerized school.

Wehlage, G., Stone, C., Lesko, N., Nauman, C., & Page, R. (1982). Effective programs for the marginal high school student: A report to the Wisconsin Governor's Employment and Training Office. Madison, WI: The University of Wisconsin-Madison, Wisconsin Center for Educational Research.

Researchers at the Wisconsin Center studied six effective secondary programs that reflect current theory and research on "marginal" students. Some of these programs are based upon a developmental perspective that recognizes the importance of student thinking from a sociocentric perspective. They use a variety of individualized and cooperative learning strategies dependent on experiential activities (e.g., involving community service, career internships, political/social action, community study, outdoor adventure).

Student Engagement in Learning

Picture a classroom where excitement permeates the environment, where students are actively asking questions, seeking out information, proposing answers, and then perhaps collecting more information and revising their conclusions. Or imagine a class where students have the opportunity to identify, investigate, and resolve an environmental problem in their community. These are sketches of classes where students are engaged and take an active role in learning. Unfortunately, schools typically assign rather passive roles to students; roles in which they absorb and perhaps apply information delivered by the teacher. Such passive roles may undermine students' intellectual engagement in learning and contribute to their alienation from school. Even students who appear "successful," but are not engaged, may do little more than memorize information; they fail to learn to solve problems or become autonomous learners.

To change the current order, schools must create conditions which encourage student engagement, including the recognition of students' need for competence, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, social support, and a

sense of ownership. To ensure that students become active learners, schools should require them to construct meaning and knowledge and take responsibility for their own learning. As students become active participants in the learning process, teachers, in response, must give up some of their control of the classroom. In their new role, they guide students' intellectual engagement and collaborative inquiry. The aphorism used in Sizer's Coalition for Essential Schools for these new roles is the "student as worker, the teacher as coach."

Interestingly, the call for active student participation in learning is heard at both ends of the public education (K-12) spectrum. Early childhood educators decry the exceleration of academic expectations in kindergarten and the primary grades and resultant rote learning. They argue for a return to more experiential and child-initiated activities in a "developmentally appropriate" curriculum. Secondary educators also seek more active student engagement in such restructuring models as the Coalition of Essential Schools. They propose that students take more responsibility for their own learning and have more opportunity to both ask and answer the questions that determine the curriculum. Based on the assumption that restructured schools must redefine the student role to increase engagement and learning autonomy, the following issues need to be considered.

- How can educators encourage student engagement in learning?
- What new student and teacher roles will lead to desired outcomes? How are they best described? What models or metaphors should we use?
- To what degree should students be responsible for their own learning?
- What changes in school organization and/or instructional methods are needed to support these changed teacher-student roles?
- What skills do teachers need for new roles?

- How do we measure teacher and student accountabilities in these new roles?

Bibliography

Chion-Kenney, L. (1987). A report from the field: The Coalition of Essential Schools. American Educator, 11(4), 18-27, 47-48.

The Coalition of Essential Schools promotes the following principles: (1) personalized instruction, (2) student-as-worker, teacher-as-coach, (3) focus on adolescents, (4) focus on essential skills and knowledge, (5) teachers as generalists, (6) diploma by exhibition of mastery, (7) goals for all students, (8) tone of expectation, trust, and decency, and (9) controlled student-teacher and student-cost ratios. Examples of how each of these are being implemented are noted.

Dellinger, D. (1989). Where does the NPW end and the real world begin? The Quarterly, 11(2), 1-3, 26-27.

A high school English teacher's account of classroom events after she transferred responsibility for learning to students. Although results were somewhat uncertain, she concludes that a return to the old way, teacher control, was unacceptable, students did not learn. Learning, with student control, was hard work, but worth the effort.

Kamii, C. (1984). Autonomy: The aim of education envisioned by Piaget. Phi Delta Kappan, 65(6), 410-415.

Schools based on Piaget's theory would be radically different from existing schools because their aim would be different. Instead of the conservative goal of transferring knowledge and values from one generation to another, Piaget believed that the goal of education should be moral and intellectual autonomy. Children acquire moral values and intellectual knowledge by a constructive process. They construct knowledge by creating and coordinating relationships and learn by modifying old ideas.

Marshall, H. E. (1988). Work or learning: Implications of classroom metaphors. Educational Researcher, 17(9), 9-16.

The limitation of the workplace metaphor in driving research and teaching models is considered. Marshall notes the characteristics that differentiate learning settings from work and recreational settings. She suggests a more appropriate classroom model would be based on cognitive approaches to learning that highlight thought processes, perceptions, and understandings that enable students to take charge of their own learning.

NAEYC position statement on developmentally appropriate practices in the primary grades serving 5- through 8-year olds. (1987). In S. Bredekamp (Ed.), Developmentally appropriate practice in early childhood programs serving children from birth through age 8. Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Concern is first expressed about the current emphases on rote learning of academic skills and the neglect of experiential learning and thinking

skills. The development and learning in primary-age children is discussed, including their physical, cognitive, socio-emotional, and moral development. The proper response to normal individual differences in this age group is also explored.

Newmann, F. M. (1989). Student engagement and high school reform. Educational Leadership, 46(5), 34-36.

Student engagement in academic work is defined as the student's psychological investment in learning, comprehending, and mastering knowledge or skills. It involves participation, connection, attachment, and integration with people, tasks, objects, or organizations. Newmann maintains that certain basic elements of schooling are necessary for student engagement, namely, the opportunity to act competently, extrinsic rewards, intrinsic interests, social support/caring community, and a sense of ownership for learning. Instructional practices need to reflect awareness of student interests, readiness, individual differences as well as provide for personalization in order to enhance student engagement.

Sizer, T. R. (1984). Horace's compromise: The dilemma of the American high schools. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.

After a two-year study of American high schools, Sizer concludes that while teachers care about their students, the structure of school prevents effective teaching. Even the most "successful" students are not truly engaged in learning. The character of Horace Smith, an English teacher, is used to show the compromises teachers must make to teach within the current system. Sizer sees effective teachers as coaches in which they help students learn on their own. He lists changes that must occur within schools for that to happen.

Thinking and the School's Mission

Recent educational reform movements recognize that many American students are unable to demonstrate sound thinking ability, particularly skills of a sophisticated, cognitive nature. Numerous reports of the past decade have decried American students' poor showing on national and international assessments of reading, mathematics, and science, as well as their general inability to comprehend abstract material, raise thoughtful questions, and follow problems through to useful solutions.

Educators, lawmakers, and future employers are increasingly aware that the prospects for success in a demanding workplace are seriously compromised for many of our youngsters. Past reforms that focused primarily on basic

skills improvement are not sufficient for students who must earn their living in the worldwide technologically driven economy of the 21st century. Restructuring America's schools requires a new vision for the education of America's citizens, one in which teaching thinking and the development of higher order cognitive abilities is of primary concern.

While the current movement to teach thinking has steadily advanced over the past five years, educational practice indicates many educators still are unaware of the need to encourage both students and teachers to work at improved thinking as the goal of their studies or untrained in how it can be done effectively. Restructuring efforts thus must challenge both teachers and students at the same time.

Some questions regarding the teaching of thinking that need to be addressed are listed below.

- What is thinking? How are the new "thinking skills" related to the old "basic skills?"
- How can all students be taught how to think including "at-risk," "retarded," and "learning disabled" students?
- If restructuring focused on teaching thinking, what implications does that have for the school's curriculum, classroom instruction, and student testing?
- What problems of implementation, change, and policy focus will restructured schools face if teaching thinking become an (the) important ingredient of the school's mission?

Bibliography

Bracey, G. W. (April 15, 1989). Advocates of basic skills 'know what ain't so'. Education Week, pp. 22, 34.

Educators have not determined what skills are basic to learning. The so called "basic skills," as measured by standardized tests, are not prerequisites to higher order thinking because learning is not the linear process many believe it is. Bracey proposes that educators first identify what academics they want children to master and then select the skills that will enable them to succeed. Assessment must match the skills taught.

Costa, A. L. (1984). Mediating the metacognitive. Educational Leadership, 42(3), 57-62.

Teachers must specifically encourage thinking about thinking or metacognition. Strategies for helping students develop their metacognitive abilities include: planning, generating questions, choosing consciously, evaluating multiple criteria, taking credit, outlawing "I can't", paraphrasing or reflecting back students' ideas, labeling students' behaviors, clarifying students' terminology, role playing and simulations, journal keeping, and modeling. Students who use metacognition can describe their thinking processes.

Kruse. J. (1987). Classroom activities in thinking skills. Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools.

This resource book contains descriptions of activities that integrate the teaching of thinking skills into the regular curriculum. The activities for students in grade four and above are coded for subject appropriateness and organized by the following topics: basic thinking skills, critical thinking, creative thinking, problem solving and decisionmaking.

Link, F. R. (1985). Essays on the intellect. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

This collection of essays offers a broad perspective of intellectual development and explores the implications of recent theoretical positions in the work of Elliott Jaques, Joseph Walters, and Howard Gardner; examines the long-term interest and study of intellectual development of the gifted and talented, which has occupied Harry Passow's attention for more than a decade; and presents theoretical and related curricular approaches described in the essays by Allan Glatthorn, Robert Sternberg, Frances Link, and Garry McDaniels. Wherever possible, these authors analyze how their ideas might contribute to educational planning.

Marzano, R. J., et al. (1988). Dimensions of thinking: A framework for curriculum and instruction. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Organizing and clarifying research and theory from diverse sources, including philosophy and cognitive psychology, this book provides a framework to help educational practitioners plan programs for incorporating the teaching of thinking throughout the regular curriculum. Chapter one discusses the need for a framework for teaching thinking and presents a historical perspective on the study of thinking. Chapters two through six discuss five dimensions of thinking: (1) metacognition, (2) critical and creative thinking, (3) thinking process, such as concept formation, problem solving, and research, (4) core thinking skills, the "building blocks" of thinking, and (5) the relationship of content-area knowledge to thinking. The final chapter presents guidelines for using the framework.

Resnick, L. B. (1987). Education and learning to think. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Resnick analyses the latest findings from psychology and education on how children acquire complex thinking skills and learn to reason, and how the schools can teach such skills more effectively. She reviews previous research, highlights successful learning strategies, and makes specific recommendations about problems and directions requiring further study. Among the topics covered are: (1) the nature of thinking and learning, (2) the possibilities of teaching general reasoning, (3) the attempts to improve intelligence, (4) thinking skills in academic disciplines, (5) methods of cultivating the disposition toward higher order thinking and learning, and (6) the integral role motivation plays in these activities.

Presseisen, B. Z. (Ed.). (1988). At-risk students and thinking: Perspectives from research. Washington, DC: National Education Association and Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools.

After noting the discrepancy between the goal of teaching thinking to all students and practice for at-risk youth, this edited volume explores the theoretical issues and research-based practice related to teaching at-risk students to think. The first chapters help define who at-risk students are, provide a historical perspective, and describe the problem of teaching thinking to at-risk students. Later chapters offer perspectives and strategies that will enable educators to be successful with this group.

The Comprehensive Needs of Students

School success is tied to a child's total well-being. If students have unmet health, welfare, or personal needs, their ability to learn may be compromised. Schools, in the past, largely assumed that families could provide for most student needs and their role was to engage primarily in instructional activities; however, an increasing number of families are unable to meet independently all of their children's needs due to significant social and economic changes. Greater numbers of children (and often their families as well) can benefit from assistance in such areas as health services, childcare, or counseling. Although some educators have long attempted to identify those children whose unmet needs impede learning and to seek appropriate services for them on a case-by-case basis, many are now advocating that the school take a larger and more active role in providing for student's comprehensive needs.

A variety of programs and strategies are suggested by educators to meet children's comprehensive needs while furthering their academic progress. In some models the school becomes the site for needed services and/or takes a leadership role in providing services to students and families, while in others, the school system's role becomes one of coordination (an assurance that the schools and social welfare agencies work closely together for the benefit of the child).

Some educators feel schools have too much to handle, and therefore, should not take on greater responsibilities. They maintain that comprehensive services should be delivered by some other community group. Because education and social welfare services have been traditionally the responsibility of separate institutions, some educators question whether or not the two groups can learn to work together easily or effectively.

While there are problems to be overcome in terms of fragmentation of services and limited funding, there are some positive examples of projects meeting the comprehensive needs of children at the national, state, and local levels. For example, the National Association of State Boards of Education's Joining Forces encourages schools to cooperate with social welfare agencies. At least 30 states have called for some interagency action on dropout prevention. For instance, California established a Comprehensive Children's Services Steering Committee last year to improve interagency coordination for programs serving at-risk youth. At the local level, municipal authorities have joined with non-profit organizations and foundations. Chicago's Center for Successful Child Development, also known as the Beethoven Project, provides intensive health, child development, and education services for pregnant mothers and children within a public housing area.

In addressing the comprehensive needs of children educators are debating the following issues.

- Should schools take on an expanded role in meeting the comprehensive needs of children and their families?
- What are the consequences for schools and children when schools decide to focus only on instruction, and therefore, encourage other agencies to ensure children's physical or emotional well-being?
- How can a school select the most effective model for providing services to children (e.g., the school as the site for service, the school as the broker of services, the school as the coordinator of services, the school as a case-manager of children's services, etc.)?
- What kinds of strategies can schools use to obtain the resources necessary for increasing services to children and their families?
- What are the barriers to providing for the comprehensive needs of children and how can they be overcome?

Bibliography

Cohen, D. L. (March 15, 1989). Joining forces. Education Week, pp. 7, 8, 10.

A description of the collaborative efforts to provide essential services to troubled children. Different models for collaboration between school and social agencies are described and major actors in the effort of "joining forces" to meet the needs of young people are mentioned.

Coleman, J. S. (1987). Families and schools. Educational Researcher, 16(6), 32-38.

The author examines the reasons why families at all economic levels are becoming less equipped to provide a home setting that complements current schools in preparing the next generation. He indicates which elements are missing from the home and community and suggests a solution.

Comer, J. S. (1987). New Haven's school-community connection. Educational Leadership, 44(6), 13-16.

New Haven Schools' 19-year old project builds a support network for high risk students in which a mental health team shares child development and behavior knowledge, skills, and sensitivity with parents, teachers, and administrators. This knowledge is applied to social and academic program planning and to interactions with students. The collaboration prevents as well as treats problems. The need for preservice education that teaches collaborative skills and helps provides a positive school climate is discussed.

Forderaro, L. W. (April 14, 1989). Teachers as social workers: Experiment finds resistance. New York Times, pp. 1.

Teacher resistance to some parts of the Rochester, New York school system program to improve education in the district is explored. The article focuses primarily on the resistance of teachers to perform a social worker role.

Heath, S. B., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1987). A child resource policy: Moving beyond dependence on school and family. Phi Delta Kappan, 68(8), 576-580.

The authors argue that current strategies for school renewal are based on outdated concepts emphasizing family involvement in schools. The function of the family has been fundamentally altered culturally, demographically, and economically. New strategies necessitate changing school governance structures and crossing the boundaries of private and public sectors in order to provide services to children. The school moves from the role of deliverer of educational services to broker of multiple services.

Schorr, L. B., & Schorr, D. (1988). Within our reach: Breaking the cycle of disadvantage. New York: Acnhor-Press, Doubleday.

The authors describe social programs for children that have proven to be highly successful over the last two decades. These programs -- intensive health, family support, and education -- break the link between early disadvantage and later joblessness, welfare dependence, and crime.

Shedlin, A., Klopf, G., & Zaret, E. (1988). The school as locus of advocacy for all children. New York: Elementary School Center.

The current American elementary school was designed for a society that no longer exists and so is not responsive to the societal realities affecting children and their families. A new concept for schools is proposed, one in which the school becomes "the locus of advocacy for all children" in guaranteeing their rights and in meeting their needs. Schools should take on this expanded role because it is the one institution that sees most children regularly. The authors call for a national dialogue to clarify the concept and develop models for its implementation.

ORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

What changes can be made in the relationships among educators to better support student learning? Those engaged in restructuring suggest that promoting teacher professionalism, changing the locus of decisionmaking to the school site, or altering traditional relationships among schools, districts, and state departments of education may provide answers to the question. Each of these is a theme for the sections which follow.

Teacher Professionalism

Although teacher professionalism is often discussed in the restructuring literature, it is seldom clearly defined. Teacher professionalism is the extent to which teachers share specialized knowledge and common standards of practice. Autonomy, decisionmaking authority, and commensurate status and wages are other critical elements of a professionalized teaching occupation. Educators and researchers agree that working conditions in schools have not promoted teachers' continuous growth and commitment and that the educational system must change in order to promote teacher professionalism. As teacher professionalism increases, educators and researchers both believe that teacher performance and student learning in the classroom will improve.

No single strategy has been suggested to enhance teacher professionalism. Instead, four recurring processes are mentioned in the restructuring literature to promote teacher professionalism. They are: (1) strengthening the selection, preparation, and certification standards of teachers, (2) improving teacher retention methods, (3) deregulating teaching (e.g., fewer rules prescribing curriculum selection, instructional techniques, and time frames to accomplish tasks), and (4) expanding the roles of teachers. In

discussions of teacher professionalism related to school restructuring, the following issues arise.

- What specific changes are needed to increase teacher professionalism and the status of the teaching occupation?
- What incentives will be provided to teachers as they adopt more professional responsibilities and duties?
- How will increased teacher professionalism be rewarded?
- How will we know that increased professionalization of the teaching profession has occurred in restructured schools?
- How will professionalized teachers be held accountable?
- How will unions be impacted by increased teacher professionalism?

Bibliography

Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy. (1986). A nation prepared: Teachers for the 21st century. Hyattsville, MD. Author.

The Task Force on Teaching as a Profession calls for sweeping changes in educational policy affecting the teaching profession. These changes include: the creation of a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards; restructuring of schools to provide a professional environment for teaching; restructuring the teaching force with the introduction of a new category of lead teachers; reforming teacher education; preparation of minority teachers; development of new teacher incentives; and re-establishment of teachers' salaries and career opportunities.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Berry, B. (1988). The evolution of teacher policy. Santa Monica, CA: Rand.

The evolution of teacher professionalism is traced in a policy context. Recent trends in teacher certification and compensation are discussed along with an analysis of the governance of teacher policy.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1988). Accountability and teacher professionalism. American Educator, 12(4), 8-13, 38-43.

Darling-Hammond argues for the establishment of a professional model of accountability as a means of educational restructuring. She offers a framework for professional practice which includes client-oriented accountability, the use of professional knowledge, and ongoing review of practice. These changes depend on two conditions which are needed to support professional accountability: overcoming teacher isolation and increasing teacher involvement in professional decisionmaking.

The Holmes Group, Inc. (1986). Tomorrow's teachers. East Lansing, MI: Author.

Goals for reforming teacher preparation, restructuring the teaching force, and developing professional schools are outlined. Some specific changes include: recognition of differences in teachers' knowledge, skill and commitment, education, certification, and work; creation of entry standards into the profession in the form of examinations and educational requirements; connection of universities and schools; improvement of schools as teacher working and learning environments. This report outlines plans for reaching these goals in detail, and explains the reasoning behind them.

Lortie, D. (1975). Schoolteacher. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lortie discusses the social position of teachers, arrangements governing admission and training, and the associational bonds within teaching. The way teachers are differentiated from other workers in our society is examined through the processes of recruitment, socialization, and career rewards. The growth pattern of the occupation and factors that influence the selection of teaching as a career also are examined.

Sedlak, M., & Schlossman, S. (1986). Who will teach? Historical perspectives on the changing appeal of teaching as a profession. Santa Monica, CA: Rand.

The desirability of teaching as a career is examined from a historical perspective. The report focuses on the reward structure in teaching, tracing the evolution of financial incentives from 1910 to the present, and also explores the social origins and composition of the teaching force focusing on gender, social class, and academic preparation and qualifications.

The Locus of Decisionmaking

Decentralization, through school-based management/shared decision-making, is one of the cornerstones of restructuring. In some restructured schools, primary decisionmaking responsibility is moved from the district to the school with the school taking control of the educational change and improvement process. In school-based management (SBM) sites, decisions are made where they will have impact and close to the people who will be affected by them. Transferring decisionmaking allows those at the school level to tailor their decisions to the particular demands of their school staff, students, and resources. This move is intended to give individual

schools the responsibility and authority to improve the instructional program for their students.

There are many definitions and models for school-based management, shared decisionmaking, or shared governance, and they differ greatly from one another. However, transferring decisionmaking responsibilities and control of resources from the central office to the individual building means that the roles of central office staff, the building principals, teachers, students, and parents change. Implementation of any of these models calls for a basic shift in how school staff members work together, a move from traditional isolation to increasing collaboration. Principals become chief executive officers (CEOs) with the responsibility and accountability for the performance of their schools, teachers have increased responsibility for the curriculum and student achievement, and students and parents make more decisions related to schooling.

The tensions which emerge as a result of decentralization are less a question of decisionmaking style or process than questions of what are the critical decisions, who makes them, and through what structures. They include the following issues.

- What administrative and instructional decisions are moved from the central office to the school building?
- What formal and informal organizational relationships and boundaries develop as decisionmaking is transferred to the school building?
- How does school-based management affect the formal chain of command, both vertically and horizontally?
- What legal/contractual issues influence shared decisionmaking?
- What communication systems are needed to insure that decisionmakers have the information necessary to make decisions?
- What training and staff development will be necessary to help central office and school building staff adjust to school-based management?

- What role(s) can students play as organizational decisionmakers?

Bibliography

Bacharach, S. B., Bauer, S. C., & Shedd, J. B. (1986). The work environment and school reform. Teacher's College Record, 88(2), 241-257.

The most important role of school management is to structure schools in such a way as to allow teachers to perform their role effectively. This means provision of the necessary resources, involvement in making decisions that affect work, and participation in critical dialogues central to education.

Burns, L. T., & Howes, J. (1988). Handing control to local schools: Site-based management sweeps the country. The School Administrator, 7(45), 8-10.

One district's efforts to implement site-based decisionmaking in its schools is described. Details are provided on the process of creating school effectiveness teams, training the teams, and creating flexible staffing plans for the schools. Of particular interest is the discussion of training costs to support team training.

Clune, W. H., & White, P. A. (1988). School-based management: Institutional variation, implementation, and issues for further research. New Brunswick, NJ: Center for Policy Research in Education.

A study of 30 school-based management programs focusing on structures, roles, and implementation is described. The study showed that while philosophies were similar across programs, organization and operation were not. Implementation problems occurred around difficulty in adapting to new roles. Participants lacked the disposition and training for new kinds of decision-making. The authors concluded that further research is needed to study the impact of decentralization, participation of teachers, requisite training, and possible conflicts with regulatory agencies.

Conley, S. C., Schmidle, T., & Shedd, J. B. (1988). Teacher participation in the management of school systems. Teacher's College Record, 90(2), 259-280.

By comparing traditional forms of participation to more recent forms such as quality circles, peer assistance, and career ladders, the authors argue for allowing teachers greater responsibility in the management of school systems. Rationales for enhancing teacher involvement in decision-making and a conceptual framework for analyzing teacher participation in school management are presented.

David. J., & Peterson, S. (1984). Can schools improve themselves? A study of school-based management programs. Palo Alto, CA: Bay Area Research Group.

Six school-based improvement programs in elementary schools serving low SES children were studied to determine the effectiveness of these plans and factors that aided or hindered them. Five conclusions were reached: (1)

the principles of treating the school as an organization and developing an ongoing planning and review process with staff involvement is sound, (2) the creation of school-based planning and change is difficult, (3) the fact that planning groups can successfully change non-structural aspects of the school provides hope for the eventual transfer into instructional areas, (4) students in need were not overlooked in school-based programs, and (5) the knowledge, skills, and actions essential to instructional leadership can be used as criteria for identifying and training local staff as change agents.

English, F. W., et al. (1988). School-based management: A strategy for better learning. Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators.

This report summarizes the recommendations of a task force of educational administrators, jointly convened by AASA, NAESSP, and NASSP, experienced in school-based management. The report includes an overview of school-based management, reasons for considering this new form of school governance, a discussion of the roles people will play, and some guidelines on how to get started.

Guthrie, J. W. (1986). School-based management: The next needed educational reform. Phi Delta Kappan, 68(4), 305-309.

The four principles of school-based management are outlined, namely the principal as the CEO, school advisory councils which should include parents, school-site budgeting and accounting, and annual planning and performance reports. Implementation considerations such as the need for performance standards and accountability also are discussed.

Relationships Among Schools, Districts, and State Departments of Education

The impetus for school restructuring may come from individual schools, districts, or state departments of education. When these efforts occur, the old expectations, rules, and regulations that govern relationships among the three will be challenged. In particular, the restructuring process will result in an inevitable struggle between balancing school autonomy with district, state, and federal rules, regulations, and guidelines. Examples currently exist of restructuring efforts starting at all levels. At the school building level are the schools participating in Sizer's Coalition of Essential Schools. The Baton Rouge Parish School System, an example of a district-initiated restructuring effort, is combining school-based management with open district enrollment. And Washington State in its Schools for

the 21st Century program is encouraging pilot schools to restructure school operations to improve student performance. Participating schools receive temporary waivers of certain state statutes and regulations in order to try new methods and procedures.

Some of the issues arising from changing relationships due to restructuring are expressed in the following questions.

- What roles should districts and states assume when they want to promote the concept of school-level restructuring?
- How should districts and states define their roles and relationships to schools that are engaged in restructuring?
- How can states and districts balance the roles of leadership and provider of technical and financial assistance with their role as a regulatory/monitoring agency?
- Since restructuring efforts will likely challenge the long-standing norms, rules, and regulations that have guided relationships among schools, districts, and the state, how should this process be approached?
- What are the positive and negative effects of state and district regulations as they relate to restructuring?
- What guidelines/processes should states and districts use in waiving various rules and regulations (e.g., suspend all rules/regulations for schools engaged in restructuring?

Bibliography

David, J. L., Purkey, S., & White, P. (1988). Restructuring in progress: Lessons from pioneering districts. Washington, DC: Center for Policy Research of the National Governors' Association.

Case studies of several local school districts that are experimenting with new structural arrangements are presented. Each of the districts described share a long-term commitment to comprehensive change and intend to restructure the system by redefining the roles of and the relationships among district and school staff. A separate analysis section describes common problems in approaching structural change, suggests how some have overcome barriers, and discusses implications for state and district leaders interested in leading and supporting restructuring efforts.

Elmore, R. F. (1988). Early experiences in restructuring schools: Voices from the field. Washington, DC: Center for Policy Research of the National Governors' Association.

This publication summarizes the major themes and lessons learned from a National Governors' Association sponsored meeting (March 1988) of educators and policymakers who support, develop, and implement restructuring programs and initiatives at the state, district, and school building levels. The essay identifies obstacles that are central to restructuring schools, outlines some strategies that have emerged from the early experience of school and district level practitioners, and offers guidance to state-level policymakers interested in initiating pilot programs to change the structure of schools.

Elmore, R. F., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1988). Steady work: Policy practice, and the reform of American education. Santa Monica, CA: Rand.

Elmore and McLaughlin analyze the relationship between educational policymaking and practice in schools and classrooms. The discussion is designed to contribute to the current debate on educational reform by drawing lessons from recent attempts to reform schools with policy.

Honetschlager, D., & Cohen, M. (1988). The governors restructure school. Educational Leadership, 45(5), 42-43.

In Time for Results (1986) the nation's governors announced a new education reform agenda that develops and extends states' recent initiatives. This article focuses on the governors' Restructuring of Schools Project, designed to provide consultation to and share information among states as they facilitate restructuring efforts. The article suggests strategies for state efforts, including articulating a vision of restructuring, setting goals and defining outcome standards, developing realistic sanctions for schools and districts that are failing to meet goals, and providing resources and assistance to schools and districts that fail to meet goals and standards.

Perelman, L. J. (1988). Restructuring the system is the solution. Phi Delta Kappan, 70(1), 20-24.

Perelman discusses the rationale for restructuring the educational system and makes three general points related to governance. First, deregulation and decentralization will help to achieve innovation; state and local policies must grant more freedom for decisionmaking to schools and districts. Additionally, local school officials should provide more technical assistance and training to help schools and districts implement innovations. Second, a climate of openness to change and flexibility will be encouraged through collaborative teamwork and participatory management, teaching teams, etc. Third, coordinated communications systems and networks among school participants will avoid top-down processes.

Timar, T. B., & Kirp, D. L. (1988). State efforts to reform schools: Treading between a regulatory swamp and an English garden. Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 10(2), 75-88.

The authors argue that the current reform efforts aimed at educational excellence will fail unless the policy culture shifts the strategic focus from regulation and compliance monitoring to mobilization of institutional capacity. This article examines reform strategies of three states -- Texas, California, and South Carolina -- and how those strategies relate to reform outcomes.

THE FOCUS OF RESTRUCTURING -- EDUCATIONAL GOALS, PARTICIPANT ROLES, DELIVERY STRUCTURES

Current discussions of restructuring, as reflected in this pre-reader, certainly raise more questions than they answer. It is much too soon to agree on a precise definition of restructuring, to predict how issues will be resolved, or to judge the impact of the movement on student learning. This pre-reader has hopefully increased awareness of restructuring issues, provided sources for further study, and provoked debate around the themes of student learning and organizational relationships, two dimensions of restructuring as depicted in the cube on page 2.

The third dimension of the cube addresses the focus of the restructuring effort, or the dimension(s) on which change is likely to occur. Restructuring is substantive change, not the kind of incremental change that nibbles around the edges of a problem, but change purposefully designed to fundamentally alter education as now practiced. It may mean some new combination of goals for education, roles for participants, or structures for educational delivery. However, it is still too early to know with any certainty what changes will be made and how restructured schools will look. As a result, this dimension has not yet been explored. These three themes, educational goals, participant roles, and delivery structures, instead are suggested as organizers or focal points for studying school restructuring efforts.